Mutations in *PMR5* result in powdery mildew resistance and altered cell wall composition

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Summary

Powdery mildews and other obligate biotrophic pathogens are highly adapted to their hosts and often show limited host ranges. One facet of such host specialization is likely to be penetration of the host cell wall, a major barrier to infection. A mutation in the *pmr5* gene rendered Arabidopsis resistant to the powdery mildew species *Erysiphe cichoracearum* and *Erysiphe orontii*, but not to the unrelated pathogens *Pseudomonas syringae* or *Peronospora parasitica*. *PMR5* belongs to a large family of plant-specific genes of unknown function. *pmr5*-mediated resistance did not require signaling through either the salicylic acid or jasmonic acid/ethylene defense pathways, suggesting resistance in this mutant may be due either to the loss of a susceptibility factor or to the activation of a novel form of defense. Based on Fourier transform infrared analysis, the *pmr5* cell walls were enriched in pectin and exhibited a reduced degree of pectin modification relative to wild-type cell walls. In addition, the mutant had smaller cells, suggesting a defect in cell expansion. A double mutant with *pmr6* (defective in a glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchored pectate lyase-like gene) exhibited a strong increase in total uronic acid content and a more severe reduction in size, relative to the single mutants, suggesting that the two genes affect pectin composition, either directly or indirectly, via different mechanisms. These two mutants highlight the importance of the host cell wall in plant–microbe interactions.

Keywords: Arabidopsis, cell wall, disease susceptibility, disease resistance, pectin, powdery mildew.

Introduction

Plant pathogens have evolved a variety of strategies for extracting nutrients from their hosts. At one extreme lie the necrotrophic pathogens that actively kill host tissues and then proliferate in the wreckage (e.g. Botrytis spp.). At the other extreme lie obligate biotrophic pathogens that can grow only on living plant tissues. Biotrophic pathogens have evolved the ability to extract nutrients from their hosts without killing them. In addition, these pathogens must evade or suppress host defenses until their life cycle is complete. Powdery mildew fungi are excellent examples of obligate biotrophic pathogens. Indeed, the growth requirements of these pathogens are so exacting that they have never been cultured on artificial media. Given the intimacy of the relationship between obligate biotrophs and their hosts, it seems possible that some host genes would be required for pathogen growth. If such host susceptibility

genes were mutated, assuming the genes were not redundant or essential for host survival, then pathogen growth would be reduced. Phenotypically such mutants would appear disease-resistant (Panstruga, 2003; Schulze-Lefert and Vogel, 2000). Based on this reasoning, we developed a screen to recover loss-of-susceptibility to mutants of Arabidopsis, the powdery mildew-resistant (pmr) mutants (Vogel and Somerville, 2000; Vogel et al., 2002). Twenty-six mutants in six complementation groups, pmr1-pmr6, were isolated. Two of the PMR genes have been cloned. PMR4 (=CALS12, =GLS5) encodes a wound and pathogenassociated callose synthase, and PMR6 codes for a pectatelyase-like protein (Nishimura et al., 2003; Vogel et al., 2002). The diverse nature of the PMR genes cloned to date highlights the range of plant processes that contribute to powdery mildew disease development.

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Due to the general nature of this screen, gain-of-resistance mutants were also expected. Introducing mutations or transgenes that block flux through known defense pathways into the pmr mutants is one valuable method for distinguishing loss-of-susceptibility from gain-of-resistance mutants (Glazebrook, 2001). pmr4 resistance was dependent on a functional salicylic acid (SA) signal transduction pathway suggesting that this mutant was a gain-of-resistance mutant (Nishimura et al., 2003). However, similar double mutant experiments demonstrated that pmr6-mediated resistance did not require either the SA or the jasmonate (JA)/ethylene pathways (Vogel et al., 2002). Thus, PMR6 is either required for susceptibility or pmr6 mutations activate an undescribed defense pathway, suggesting PMR6 is a novel host component of plant-microbe interactions.

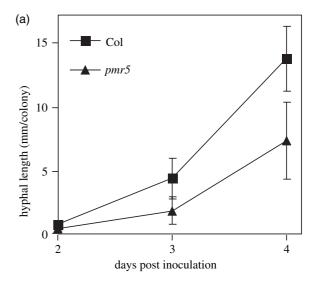
Cloning of the PMR6 gene revealed that it was a member of a large family of cell wall-degrading pectate lyases (Vogel et al., 2002). However, PMR6 differs from other pectate lyases in the Arabidopsis genome by a novel C-terminal domain with a glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor motif. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis revealed that cell walls from uninfected pmr6 plants were spectroscopically distinct from wild-type cell walls. Although the spectroscopic differences could not be unambiguously deconvoluted, they were consistent with increased pectin content, reduced pectin esterification and a change in the hydrogen-bonding environment of cellulose in the mutant relative to wild-type cell walls. Cross-linking of pectin components determines the porosity of the cell wall and the charged sugar residues in pectin components determine the ionic environment of the wall, both features that could impact pathogen interactions with its host (Vincken et al., 2003). As pectin is thought to play a role in the complex process of cell wall expansion, the altered pectin content of pmr6 cell walls may contribute to the reduced size of this mutant.

In the same screen for powdery mildew-resistant mutants that gave rise to pmr1 to pmr4 and pmr6, we identified another mutant, pmr5, which was morphologically very similar to and had the same disease resistance phenotype as *pmr6*, but belonged to a different complementation group. Here we describe the cloning and characterization of *PMR5*.

Results

Mutant isolation and fungal growth

The pmr5 mutant was identified as being highly resistant to powdery mildew (Vogel and Somerville, 2000). Crosses between pmr5 and the other pmr loci indicated that pmr5 defined a new complementation group. An F2 population from a pmr5 × Col cross segregated 74 susceptible:22 resistant plants, which fit a 3:1 segregation ($\chi^2 = 0.22$, P = 0.64) expected of a single, recessive Mendelian locus.



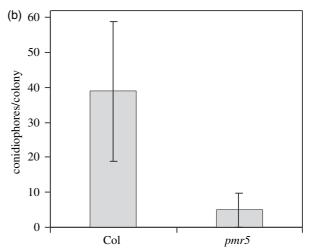


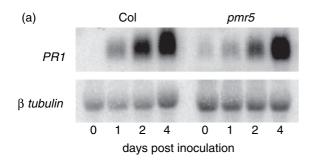
Figure 1. Quantification of Erysiphe cichoracearum growth. (a) Hyphal length per colony. (b) Conidiophores per colony at 6 dpi.

Mean \pm SD based on 15 colonies are presented in both (a) and (b).

To quantify powdery mildew resistance, hyphal growth and asexual reproduction was measured (Vogel and Somerville, 2000). From 2 days post-inoculation (dpi) and beyond, hyphal growth was significantly (t-test, P < 0.01) lower on pmr5 plants than on wild type (Figure 1a). Likewise, conidiation was significantly (t-test, $P < 10^{-6}$) reduced on pmr5 (Figure 1b). These results indicate that pmr5 resistance was not due to a block at a specific stage of fungal growth. Rather, the fungus simply failed to thrive on pmr5 plants.

Contribution of known defenses

To determine the activation state of the SA and JA/ethylene pathways in the pmr5 mutant, we measured the steady-state



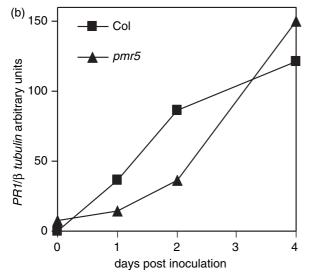


Figure 2. Time course of *PR1* mRNA accumulation following inoculation with powdery mildew.

(a) RNA gel blot probed with *PR1* and β -tubulin.

(b) PR1 intensity from A was normalized to β -tubulin intensity and plotted versus dpi. Similar trends were observed in two other experiments using slightly different time points.

levels of *PR1* and *PDF1.2* mRNAs. For the 4 days after inoculation, *PR1* mRNA levels in *pmr5* plants were

approximately the same or modestly reduced relative to wild type (Figure 2). Thus, pmr5 resistance was not mediated by a hyper-activation of the SA pathway. However, we observed that pmr5 plants constitutively expressed a low and variable amount of PR1. To determine whether this lowlevel constitutive activation of the SA pathway was responsible for the resistance, we introduced the npr1-1 mutation and the NahG transgene into the pmr5 background with sexual crosses. The NahG transgene encodes a salicylate hydroxylase that degrades SA to catechol and has been widely used to block SA signaling (Lawton et al., 1995). pmr5 NahG plants were still resistant to powdery mildew (Figure 3) despite no longer expressing detectable levels of PR1 mRNA (not shown). NPR1 is a downstream component in the SA signal transduction pathway (Cao et al., 1994). Similar to NahG, the npr1 mutation blocks signaling through the SA pathway. Consistent with the pmr5 NahG results, pmr5 npr1-1 plants were resistant to powdery mildew. Importantly, as NPR1 is also required for the activation of induced systemic resistance, this pathway cannot be responsible for pmr5 resistance.

To evaluate the contribution of the JA/ethylene pathway to *pmr5* resistance, we determined the steady-state level of *PDF1.2* mRNA after inoculation and determined the effect of mutations that block ethylene or JA signaling on *pmr5* resistance (Glazebrook, 2001; Penninckx *et al.*, 1996). Unlike *PR1*, no induction of *PDF1.2* was observed in wild type or *pmr5* after inoculation (not shown). Not surprisingly, mutations that block ethylene signaling (*ein2-1*; Alonso *et al.*, 1999) or JA signaling (*coi1*; Xie *et al.*, 1998) had no effect on *pmr5*-mediated resistance (Figure 3). Thus, *pmr5*-mediated resistance does not require signaling through the SA or JA/ethylene pathways leaving open the possibility that PMR5 is required for fungal growth or that the *pmr5* mutation leads to the activation of a novel defense mechanism.

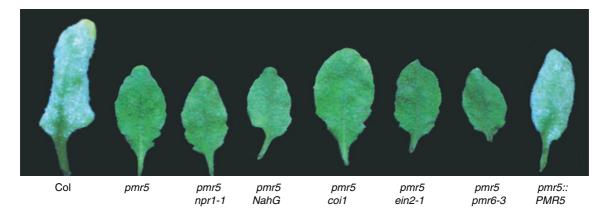


Figure 3. Effects of various mutations on the *pmr5* phenotype.

Plants were inoculated 11 days prior to being photographed. Note the lack of fungal growth on lines homozygous for the *pmr5* mutation, irrespective of other mutations (*npr1-1*, *coi1*, *ein2-1*) and ectopic expression of *NahG*, which alter defense signaling. Also note that transgenic complementation of the *pmr5* mutation with the wild-type gene (i.e. *pmr5:PMR5*) restored susceptibility. Plants were 25 days old when photographed. Leaves displaying typical reactions are shown.

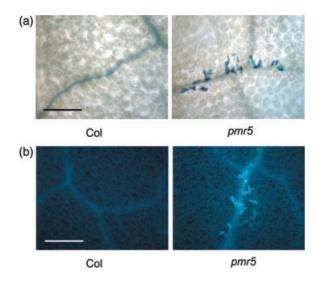


Figure 4. Microlesion phenotype.

(a) Uninfected leaves stained with trypan blue. Dead cells stain dark blue. Note that individual mesophyll cells along some veins are stained in pmr5. Veins appear as dark lines.

(b) The accumulation of autofluorescent compounds, as indicated by bright blue spots, follows the same pattern as dead cells in pmr5. Veins appear as blue lines. Bars in (a) and (b) are 200 µm. Leaves were sampled from 3-weekold plants.

Cell death is thought to play a key role in the resistance mediated by most resistance genes and by some mutations conferring resistance to various pathogens. To determine whether pmr5-mediated resistance correlated with cell death, we used trypan blue staining to identify dead cells in pmr5 and wild-type leaves. At 1 dpi, we did not observe any dead cells beneath fungal colonies. At 5 dpi, we observed dead cells beneath a small percentage of colonies on both wild type and pmr5 leaves. Importantly, we observed many dead or dving fungal colonies (shrunken. detached hyphae) on top of living pmr5 cells. Thus, cell death is not required for pmr5-mediated resistance. While we did not observe increased cell death after infection, we did notice a variable number of individual dead mesophyll cells on pmr5 leaves (Figure 4a). These dead cells were typically found along the veins on the outermost edge on some of the oldest leaves. The dead cells were also autofluorescent suggesting that phenolic compounds had been cross-linked into the cell wall (Figure 4b). These microlesions did not increase after inoculation. All pmr5 leaves were highly resistant to powdery mildew, while only some of the oldest leaves contained microlesions. Thus, pmr5 resistance did not require these microlesions. We view the microlesions as a pleiotropic effect of the pmr5 mutation.

Plants reinforce the cell wall at sites of attempted fungal penetration by forming papillae. As resistance in some barley cultivars and the mlo mutant correlates with an enhanced papillae response, we examined pmr5 papillae. Papillae were visualized by staining with aniline blue, which

Table 1 Rosette diameter

Genotype	Mean rosette diameter (mm)	SD	n
Col	71	5.0	41
pmr5	38	3.0	47
pmr6-3	48	6.0	43
pmr5 pmr6-3	23	2.6	37

All mean values were significantly different based on ANOVA $(P < 10^{-99})$ and t-tests $(P < 10^{-15})$.

renders callose, a major component of the papillae, fluorescent. No differences between wild type and pmr5 were observed at 1, 2, or 3 dpi (data not shown).

Other pathogens

To determine the specificity of pmr5-mediated resistance, we challenged pmr5 plants with the bacterial pathogen Pseudomonas syringae pv tomato DC3000 (Whalen et al., 1991), the oomycete pathogen Peronospora parasitica EMCO5 (Dangl et al., 1992) and another powdery mildew species, Erysiphe orontii MGH1 (Plotnikova et al., 1998). After inoculation with several concentrations (106-108) of P. syringae pv tomato, symptoms on pmr5 plants were indistinguishable from wild type (data not shown). To determine whether the symptoms were indicative of pathogen growth, a growth curve was constructed by grinding leaf disks and plating dilutions on selective media. The growth curves for pmr5 and wild type were essentially identical (not shown). Thus, pmr5 was fully susceptible to P. syringae pv tomato.

We challenged pmr5 with P. parasitica, an unrelated obligate biotrophic pathogen. pmr5 (67 \pm 14) was equally susceptible to *P. parasitica* as CoI (64 \pm 16) as measured by sporangiophore production (values are mean of sporangiophores per seedling $\pm SD$, based on 20 seedlings). The entire experiment was repeated once with similar results.

pmr5 was also challenged with E. orontii to determine whether the resistance was specific to E. cichoracearum. Nine of nine pmr5 plants from five independent experiments showed no E. orontii growth at 7 dpi, while Col controls showed extensive *E. orontii* growth. Thus, *pmr5*-mediated resistance is effective against isolates from two different species of powdery mildew.

Morphology

Under standard growth conditions, the size of pmr5 plants differed from wild type, indicating that *PMR5* plays a role in plant growth and development. The largest diameters of pmr5 rosettes (40 \pm 3.7 mm; 19 rosettes) were smaller than those of CoI (70 \pm 3.2 mm; 18 rosettes). The area of representative epidermal cells was 4600 \pm 1600 μm^2 cell⁻¹ for Col

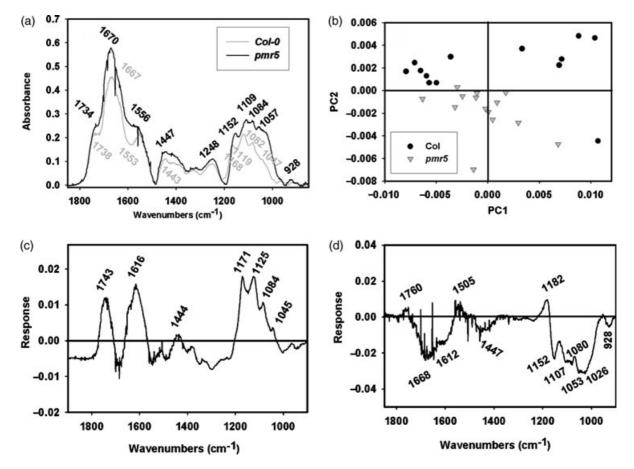


Figure 5. FTIR analysis of pmr5 and Col cell walls.

(a) Averaged mid-infrared absorption spectra from the adaxial leaf surface of Col (lower, gray curve; n=12) and pmr5 (upper, black curve; n=14). In the polysaccharide-rich absorption region from 1200 to 950 cm⁻¹ of pmr5 cell walls, the highest energy cellulose and xyloglucan-related absorption was shifted down by about 8–14 cm⁻¹, and higher overall absorption from 1080 to 980 cm⁻¹ was observed compared with wild type.

(b) Biplot showing the separation of CoI and *pmr5* spectra generated by the covariance-matrix approach for principal component analysis. Note that CoI and *pmr5* form two distinct populations.

(c, d) First and second principal components of the covariance-matrix separation of the data sets summarized in (a). (c) The first principal component eigenvector. (d) The second principal component eigenvector has features attributable to either xyloglucan (Kacurakova *et al.*, 2000) or pectins (Coimbra *et al.*, 1998; Synytsya *et al.*, 2003; Wilson *et al.*, 2000). A 1080 cm⁻¹ feature assignable to arabinogalactan-rich pectin (Kacurakova *et al.*, 2000) and pectin features at 1053 and 1026 cm⁻¹ (Wellner *et al.*, 1998) suggest an enrichment in unesterified pectin in *pmr5* relative to Col. The amide-I absorption peak at 1668 cm⁻¹ may reflect a higher protein content in the smaller *pmr5* leaves (Pelton and McLean, 2000). The broad, poorly resolved shoulder centered at 1612 cm⁻¹ encompasses spectral features for carboxylate groups from pectin, although cellulose also absorbs at this energy, perhaps consistent with the cellulose anomeric band or pectin *O*-acetyl band at 928 cm⁻¹ (Synytsya *et al.*, 2003).

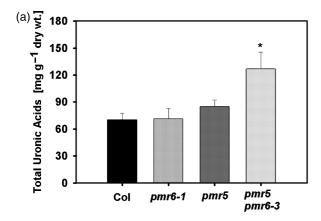
(69 cells from four leaves) and $1600 \pm 640 \, \mu m^2 \, cell^{-1}$ for pmr5 (85 cells from four leaves) (values given are mean \pm SD). Thus, pmr5 rosettes were 0.57 times the diameter of wild-type rosettes, and pmr5 epidermal cells were 0.35 times the area of wild-type epidermal cells. By comparing the square of the rosette diameter ratio (0.57 $^2 = 0.32$) with the ratio of the epidermal cell area (0.35), we conclude that the reduction in the size of pmr5 rosettes was primarily due to a decrease in cell expansion. Like pmr6 leaves, pmr5 leaves were shorter, rounder, and cupped slightly upward when compared with wild-type leaves, which curled down (Figure 3).

Given the similarity of *pmr5* and *pmr6* phenotypes, we tested whether these two genes act additively to influence

size. Both *pmr5* and the *pmr5 pmr6-3* double mutant were significantly smaller than *pmr6-3* (Table 1). Importantly, *pmr5 pmr6-3* rosettes were smaller than *pmr5* rosettes indicating that the mutations were not epistatic.

Cell wall analysis

We examined the composition of *pmr5* cell walls using FTIR spectroscopy as was the case for *pmr6* (Vogel *et al.*, 2002). Visual inspection of the spectra from *pmr5* revealed greater absorbance in the 1730–1740 cm⁻¹ shoulder region attributed to pectin esters, indicating that *pmr5* cell walls may contain more pectin than wild type (Figure 5a) (Fillipov, 1972; Synytsya *et al.*, 2003). The relative widths of the



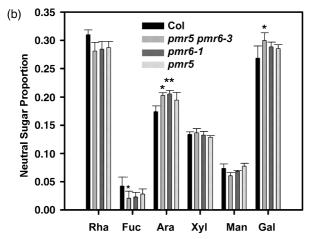


Figure 6. Sugar composition of pmr cell walls. (a) Total uronic acid content. Mean + SD based on rosette leaves from several

plants (n = 8-12) are plotted. Bars marked with * were significantly (P < 0.05) different from Col based on a t-test.

(b) Neutral sugar profile of rosette leaves. Mean \pm SD based on five to six plants are plotted. Bars marked with * (P < 0.05) or ** (P < 0.01) were significantly different from Col based on t-tests. Rha, rhamnose; Fuc, fucose; Ara, arabinose; Xyl, xylose; Man, mannose; Gal, galactose; Glc, glucose.

absorption shoulder from 1730 to 1745 cm⁻¹ in wild type and pmr5 suggested that the degree of pectin methyl-esterification or O-acetylation was lower in pmr5 cell walls (Fillipov, 1972; Synytsya et al., 2003). Similar to pmr6, absorbance features from 1170 to 1050 cm⁻¹ attributed to cellulose and xyloglucans were shifted down in energy, implying that either pmr5 forms a different hydrogen bond network in its walls than wild type or the rigidity in cellulose-CH₂OH group rotation was changed (Figure 5a) (Vinogradov and Linell,

Principal component analysis was used to find more subtle differences between pmr5 and wild-type spectra. The first and second principal components explained 56 and 15% of the variance in the original IR data set, respectively. The clearest separation of wild type and the pmr5 mutant came from principal component 2 (Figure 5b). The second principal component had signals consistent with increased pectin

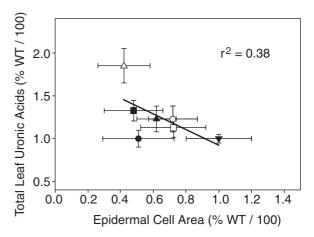


Figure 7. Relationship between cell size and pectin content. Graph showing the relationship between total leaf uronic acid content and epidermal cell area. For epidermal cell area measurements, five to seven seedlings per genotype were fixed for microscopy, and four random fields selected on the adaxial surface of rapidly expanding rosette leaves for cell area determination. For uronic acid measurements, four to six leaves per genotype were analyzed. Line is the best-fit regression line through all seven

Symbol legend: Col-0, ▼; pmr 5 ■; pmr 6, •; pmr5 pmr6-3, △; CsLB2 SALK 21821. □: bri1-116. ○: bri1 bzr1. ▲.

and with decreased pectin esterification or O-acetylation in pmr5 relative to wild-type cell walls (Figure 5d).

To determine whether pmr5, pmr6, or the pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant changed the proportion of monosaccharides contained in the polymers that make up the cell wall, we determined the concentration of sugars in acid-hydrolyzed cell walls. The acidic sugar galacturonic acid is of particular interest because it is a major component of pectin and is only found in pectin. As galacturonic acid is the dominant uronic acid found in cell walls, the other uronic acid is glucuronic acid, we used a simple spectrophotometric method to measure total uronic acids. This number should be directly proportional to the amount of pectin in the cell wall. pmr5 cell walls exhibited an 18% increase in total uronic acids relative to wild type; however, this difference was not highly significant (P = 0.056). There was no increase in total leaf uronic acid content in pmr6 leaves relative to wild-type leaves (Figure 6a). One possible explanation for why the total uronic acid content is unchanged in pmr6 but the FTIR spectra suggest an increase in pectins is that the latter method measures only the outer epidermal cell wall composition. The pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant had higher levels of uronic acid than pmr5 or pmr6, indicating that there was a synergistic interaction between the two mutations. Levels of neutral sugars in pmr5 cell walls did not differ significantly from wild type (Figure 6b), while pmr6 cell walls exhibited a modest but significant increase in arabinose. By contrast, the double mutant showed a statistically significant reduction in fucose and increases in arabinose

Figure 8. Structure of PMR5.

Exons are indicated by black boxes. The location of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) targeting sequence and the mutation in *pmr5* are indicated by arrows. aa, amino acid.

and galactose relative to wild type. Collectively, these data reinforce the idea that the double mutant exhibits more dramatic cell wall changes than either of the single mutants.

Given the fact that pectin fills the space between adjacent plant cells and there is more pectin in the corners of the cell walls, the increased uronic acid content observed in the pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant could, in principle, be due to its smaller cell size rather than an alteration in pectin biosynthesis or degradation. To test this possibility, we determined the epidermal cell size and uronic acid content of Col, pmr5, pmr6-1, the pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant and of three dwarf mutants, bri1-116, a bri1 bzr1 double mutant, and Salk insertion line 021821 (Figure 7). bri1-116 carries a null allele of a brassinosteroid receptor kinase (Li and Chory, 1997), and bzr1 a mutant allele of a transcriptional regulator of brassinosteroid sensing (Wang et al., 2002). The insertion in Salk_021821 lies in a cellulose synthase-like gene, CsLB2 (T.K. Raab and C.R. Somerville, unpublished data). Col and the mutants, pmr5, Salk_021821, bri1 and bri1 bzr1, defined a weak inverse relationship between pectin content and epidermal cell size. However, pmr6 and pmr5 pmr6-3 did not fit this relationship, with pmr6 showing reduced cell size but no increase in total leaf uronic acids and pmr5 pmr6-3 having larger epidermal cells than predicted by the relationship defined by pmr5 and Col. Thus, increases in total leaf uronic acids in the mutants cannot be attributed solely to a reduction in cell size.

Cloning PMR5

To better understand *pmr5*-mediated resistance, we cloned the corresponding gene using a positional cloning approach. Preliminary mapping using DNA from 22 F₂ plants placed *pmr5* between nga129 and LFY3 on the bottom of chromosome 5. To narrow this interval, several markers in the approximate position of *pmr5* were created. Two markers, JV57/58 on bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) MUP24 and JV61/62 on BAC MDF20, were found to flank *pmr5*. Analysis of the entire mapping population of 901 F₂ plants with JV57/58 and JV61/62 identified 74 recombinants in the *pmr5* interval. These recombinants were then tested with markers in the JV57/58-JV61/62 interval to decrease the *pmr5*-containing

Table 2 Gene expression pattern of PMR5

Tissue type ^a	No. replicates	Intensity ^b	SD
Flower-growth chamber ^c	2	5.66	1.47
Flower-greenhouse ^c	2	7.17	2.10
Leaf-growth chamber ^c	1	7.71	
Leaf-greenhouse ^c	2	4.96	0.81
Silique-greenhouse ^c	2	3.31	0.58
Stem-growth chamber ^c	2	2.46	0.03
Stem-greenhouse ^c	2	3.15	0.29
Leaf, uninoculated ^d	4	5.79	0.55
Leaf, 3 dpi with $\textit{E. cichoracearum}^{d}$	4	4.92	0.95

^aAll experiments were performed on Col, wild type.

interval. The minimum interval identified was 84 kbp as defined by markers JV94/95 on BAC MCK7 (one recombinant) and JV139/140 on BAC MZN1 (two recombinants).

The JV94/95-JV139/140 interval contained 40 genes or predicted genes. These candidate genes were subcloned into a binary vector and inserted into *pmr5* via *Agrobacte-rium*-mediated transformation. Two independent clones containing the same gene, locus AT5G58600, restored powdery mildew susceptibility and wild-type stature to *pmr5* in 104 of the 107 T1 plants examined (Figure 3). Thus, *PMR5* must be AT5G58600. To further verify that we had cloned the correct gene, the *PMR5* region from *pmr5* mutant plants was sequenced to determine the specific mutation. A single base change, G-A, that changes a trp codon (TGG) encoding amino acid 265 to a stop codon (TGA) was identified (Figure 8).

A BLAST search with genomic *PMR5* sequence identified six previously reported cDNA clones. The longest clone (GenBank AK117382) was 1398 bases long. The *PMR5* open reading frame is predicted to encode a 402-aa protein with a mass of 44.8 kDa. A comparison of the mRNA sequence to the genomic sequence revealed that *PMR5* contains four introns (Figure 8). A BLAST search with the predicted protein sequence revealed that PMR5 belongs to a large family of plant-specific genes of unknown function, with 45 members in Arabidopsis. The first 22 aa of PMR5 are predicted to serve as a non-cleavable signal sequence that targets the protein to the endoplasmic reticulum (Target P: Olof *et al.*, 2000; PSORT: Nakai and Horton, 1999; ProtFun 1.1: Jensen *et al.*, 2002).

Microarray analysis showed that *PMR5* was expressed at approximately the same level in all tissues tested; flowers, siliques, stems, uninfected leaves and leaves 3 dpi with *Erysiphe cichoracearum* (Table 2) (Nishimura *et al.*, 2003; Rhee *et al.*, 2003).

^bAverage intensity values were divided by *ACT2/7* (Affymetrix ATH1 id: 250458_at_s) values and then multiplied by 100.

^cRaw intensity values can be found at GenBank Series Accession GSE607 (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) (Rhee *et al.*, 2003).

^dRaw intensity values can be found at GenBank Series Accession GSE431 (Nishimura *et al.*, 2003).

Discussion

As in the pmr6 mutants, three lines of evidence indicate that the resistance mechanism operating in the pmr5 mutant does not require the activation of either the SA or JA/ethylene defense pathways. First, pmr5 plants did not constitutively express high levels of either PR1 or PDF1.2 mRNA indicating that resistance is not mediated by constitutive activation of the SA or JA/ethylene pathways. Secondly, neither PR1 nor PDF1.2 was induced to high levels after inoculation indicating that the resistance is not mediated by a hyperactivation of either of these signal transduction pathways. Thirdly, and most convincingly, mutants or transgenes that block signaling through the SA or JA/ethylene pathways did not abolish powdery mildew resistance in pmr5 plants. Thus, pmr5-mediated resistance is independent of the activation of known defense pathways. Therefore, PMR5 is either required for fungal growth or the pmr5 mutation activates a novel defense pathway.

Unlike resistance attributed to the majority of resistance genes and disease-resistant mutants, the attenuation of powdery mildew growth on pmr5 and pmr6 did not require cell death as shown by the lack of cell death below fungal colonies. In the course of looking for resistance-associated cell death, we noticed that both pmr5 and pmr6 had microlesions along veins on a subset of the oldest leaves. This phenotype was not correlated with resistance because only a small subset of the oldest leaves had lesions, yet all leaves were highly resistant. We previously showed that this phenotype can be phenocopied by heat treatment of wildtype plants (Vogel et al., 2002). Importantly, heat-treated plants were still susceptible to powdery mildew. We view the microlesions as a pleiotropic effect of the pmr5 and pmr6 mutations unrelated to disease resistance. These microlesions may be responsible for the slightly elevated basal level of PR1 observed in pmr5 and pmr6. That both pmr5 and pmr6 have these microlesions underscores the similarity of these mutants.

As both pmr5 and pmr6 were fully susceptible to P. syringae pv tomato and P. parasitica, the resistance is not due to the activation of a broad-spectrum defense pathway, like systemic acquired resistance. Both pmr5 and pmr6 were resistant to E. orontii indicating that the resistance is effective against isolates from two powdery mildew species. Thus, pmr5 and pmr6 resistance is qualitatively different than resistance conferred by either genefor-gene resistance genes or previously described diseaseresistant mutants.

The FTIR spectra from pmr5 epidermal cell walls were similar to the spectra from pmr6 suggesting that both mutants have increased pectin and the pectin had lower methyl esterification or O-acetylation relative to wild type. Moreover, like pmr6, the major FTIR spectral features associated with cellulose and xyloglucan shifted in energy in pmr5 cell walls, suggesting an alteration in the hydrogenbonding environment. Interestingly, the pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant had higher levels of uronic acid than either pmr5 or prm6 indicating that these two mutants interact synergistically to increase uronic acid content. The synergistic effect on uronic acid content along with the similarity of pmr5 and pmr6 phenotypes (e.g. powdery mildew resistance, morphology, microlesions, cell wall composition) suggests that these two mutations affect parallel pathways that regulate some aspects of pectin biosynthesis either directly or indirectly. Furthermore, PMR5 is predicted to be associated with the endoplasmic reticulum by a hydrophobic N-terminal signal sequence and PMR6 is predicted to locate to the exterior side of the plasma membrane via a glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor. Thus, it is unlikely that these two proteins interact directly.

To address the possibility that the increase in uronic acid observed in the pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant was due to an indirect effect of cell size, we determined the relationship between cell size and pectin content in three dwarf mutants that were not directly related to disease resistance or pectin metabolism. Our results indicated that, while the wild type, the three dwarfs and pmr5 did show a weak correlation between cell size and pectin content, the large increase in uronic acid observed for the pmr5 pmr6-3 double mutant could not be attributed solely to decreased cell size. Thus, it is possible that the increase in pectin in pmr5 pmr6-3 cell walls restricts cell expansion and this in turn limits cell size.

The cell wall is very dynamic and responds to physiological stresses and altered substrate availability with compensating changes in organization (Gillmor et al., 2002). To assess whether the changes in pectin content inferred from the FTIR spectra were associated with any compensating changes in other components, we measured the cell wall neutral sugar content. Aside from the approximately 50% reduction in fucose in the double mutant, all other statistically significant changes in neutral sugars were modest. As approximately two-thirds of the fucose in the Arabidopsis leaf cell wall is found in xyloglucan, the decreased fucose in the double mutant may suggest decreased xyloglucan fucosylation (Perrin et al., 2003; Zablackis et al., 1995). The presence of relatively normal amounts of xylose in the double mutant suggests that the amount of xyloglucan is not strongly altered. pmr5 pmr6-3 cell walls had small but significant increases in arabinose and galactose suggesting increased abundance of the galactose and arabinose-containing side chains of the pectin, rhamnogalacturonan I.

Our characterization of pmr5 revealed that pmr5-mediated resistance does not require the activation of the SA or JA/ethylene defense pathways, does not require cell death, and is not broad-spectrum. In addition, the phenotype of pmr5 plants is very similar to pmr6 plants. Taken together, these data suggest that pmr5 and pmr6 employ similar mechanisms to limit fungal growth and that this mechanism is unrelated to known defense signaling pathways. There are several possible explanations for the disease resistance of the *pmr5* mutant. This mutant may be a less hospitable host for powdery mildews. For example, the *pmr5* extrahaustorial matrix may have altered composition, especially of modified pectins, decreasing nutrient transport to the fungus or the powdery mildew pathogen may have limited ability to digest the *pmr5* outer epidermal cell wall. Alternatively, the *pmr5* cell wall may carry latent signaling molecules that are released upon powdery mildew infections to activate novel defenses (Vorwerk *et al.*, 2004). Whatever the basis for disease resistance, the *pmr5* and *pmr6* mutants highlight the importance of cell wall composition in plant–pathogen interactions.

Experimental procedures

Growth conditions, pathogen inoculations, and microscopy

Plants were grown and pathogen inoculations were performed as previously described (Vogel and Somerville, 2000; Vogel et al., 2002). All staining, microscopy and cell size determinations were as previously described (Vogel and Somerville, 2000; Vogel et al., 2002). Epidermal cell areas given in Figure 7 were measured as follows: leaves from 18-day-old Col-0, pmr5, pmr6-3, bri1-116 (Li and Chory, 1997), SALK _021821, pmr5 pmr6-3, and bri1 bzr1 plants (Wang et al., 2002) were cleared in 3:1 (v/v) ethanol:acetic acid, and rehydrated through a series of 70% ethanol, 35% ethanol and 17% ethanol. Leaf tissues were equilibrated and mounted in Hoyer's solution and then visualized with DIC on a Nikon E600 microscope (Nikon Instruments, Melville, NY, USA) at 40x (Gillmor et al., 2002). Digital pictures were captured using a SPOT CCD camera. Epidermal cells were outlined using automatic edge detection and the areas calculated using ImageJ 1.22 software (NIH website: http:// rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/).

Double mutant construction

Prior to characterization, including double mutant construction, pmr5 was backcrossed to CoI twice. The pmr5 ein2-1 double mutant was created by crossing pmr5 with ein2-1 (Alonso et al., 1999). To identify plants homozygous for the ein2-1 mutation, F_2 seeds were plated on Murashige and Skoog medium supplemented with 10 μ M 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ethylene-insensitive plants are tall in the presence of this compound). Several ethylene-insensitive plants were transferred to soil, grown for 2 weeks, and inoculated with powdery mildew to identify plants homozygous for pmr5. The pmr5 npr1-1 and pmr5 coi1 double mutants were constructed as described for pmr6 (Vogel et al., 2002). Likewise, the NahG transgene was crossed into the pmr5 background as described for pmr6.

The *pmr5 pmr6-3* double mutant was constructed by crossing *pmr5* with *pmr6-3* (Vogel *et al.*, 2002). The double mutant was identified using the following strategy: first, powdery mildewresistant F_2 plants were selected. These plants were homozygous for *pmr5* and/or *pmr6-3*. These plants were then treated with Finale herbicide (0.13% active ingredient) (AgrEvo, Berlin, Germany) to identify plants either homozygous or heterozygous for *pmr6-3*. Finale-resistant plants were allowed to set seed. The resulting F_3

families were then planted and treated with Finale to identify a family that segregated 3:1 for Finale resistance. This family must have come from an F_2 individual that was homozygous for *pmr5* and heterozygous for *pmr6-3*. Finale-resistant F_3 plants from this family were selected and allowed to set seed. F_4 families were then treated with Finale to identify a family homozygous for Finale resistance and, by inference, *pmr6-3*. A single F_4 plant was chosen as the *pmr5 pmr6-3* double mutant and allowed to set seed that was used for all experiments involving the *pmr5 pmr6-3* double mutant. To confirm the double mutant, the selected F_4 plant was test crossed to *pmr5* and *pmr6-3* (data not shown).

Fourier transform infrared analysis

Leaf disks from 12 Col plants and 14 *pmr5* plants, dark-adapted overnight to deplete diurnal starch reserves, were extracted with 1:1 (v/v) chloroform:MeOH to remove lipids (Vogel *et al.*, 2002) and analyzed in reflection mode on an IR microscope at Beamline 1.4.3 at Lawrence Berkeley Lab's Advanced Light Source synchrotron (Raab and Martin, 2001). Spectra were collected and analyzed as described (Vogel *et al.*, 2002) with the exception that 256 scans were co-added in this study.

Sugar analysis

Individual leaf disks previously used for the FTIR analysis were dried, weighed, and acid-hydrolyzed (Reiter *et al.*, 1997). Neutral sugars were quantified by separation of their partially methylated alditol acetate derivatives essentially as described in Reiter *et al.* (1997). Myoinositol (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) was added as an internal standard. An aliquot of each acid hydrolysate was used for total uronic acid determination (Blumenkrantz and Asboe-Hansen, 1973). Pure galacturonic acid (Sigma-Aldrich) was used as a standard.

Cloning PMR5

A map-based cloning approach was used to identify PMR5. DNA was extracted from 901 powdery mildew-resistant F_2 plants from a pmr5 (Col background) \times wild type (WS background) cross (Klimyuk et~al., 1993). A subset of this population was used for the initial rough mapping. Once a rough map position was determined, markers were created by scanning BAC sequences in the interval for simple sequence repeats and designing flanking oligonucleotide primers to test for polymorphisms between Col and WS. Markers were also created by sequencing predicted intergenic regions to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms. Details of the markers generated in this study can be found on the TAIR website (http://www.arabidopsis.org).

Genes in the interval containing *pmr5* were subcloned into the binary transformation vector pCAMBIA3300 (CAMBIA, Canberra, Australia) either by subcloning BAC DNA or by amplifying individual genes using PCR. PCR-amplified DNA fragments were cloned into pGEM-T prior to subcloning into pCAMBIA3300 using an *Xmal* site contained in the primer sequence. Transformants were selected on soil using Finale. T₁ transformants were challenged with *E. cichoracearum*. The two independent plasmids (pC32A1 and pC32B1) that complemented the *pmr5* mutation were created by amplifying the *PMR5* interval, including 709 bases 5′ of the start codon and 1070 bases 3′ of the poly A signal, using the following primers: JV192 (5′-acccgggaaagggacccgcttagtcat) and JV193 (5′-acccgggtcacgaagaaggtcaaaatgc).

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